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Johnson-Eilola's "Little Machines" appears after the commentary.

Our Little Help Machines and Their Invisibilities

Johndan Johnson-Eilola's "Little Machines" is wide-ranging and provocative. It serves the field of user assistance by drawing us well beyond our usual concerns about usability and efficient production.

The starting point of the essay is the general recognition that documents, software products, and all other cultural artifacts necessarily reflect the outlook and agenda of those who create and disseminate these artifacts. Certain things are left in; certain things taken out; certain things are made more and less prominent. The agenda may well be benign, but it may not be. These artifacts, furthermore, very often present themselves to us in a neutral, self-effacing manner. The essay's central argument is that help systems and software user interfaces, through their neutral personas and the ease with which they are used, have now achieved the condition of invisibility. This invisibility is pernicious: It subtly restricts thought and leads people to limit their horizons of potential action.

As I read "Little Machines," invisibility has four aspects. I offer commentary on each and on the calls for change ("rearticulations") that make up the second half of the essay. Johnson-Eilola writes in a spirit of speculation and intellectual adventure, and his complex argument is composed of numerous strands. My commentary, therefore, does not closely map the structure of the essay. Rather, I try to contribute strategically to the dialog, focusing on points about which I have reservations.

Four Kinds of Invisibility and Their Consequences

The first kind of invisibility has to do with information access. In contrast to print manuals, which are rapidly becoming obsolete, online help enables users to access information so quickly and easily that the information users want just seems to be there for them. Although users benefit from this efficiency, their normal instincts to reflect and question are diminished.

In regard to this claim, I offer an observation that I think will be made both by many documentation professionals and computer users: Help is simply not that good.

Johnson-Eilola shows us balloon help and tool tips, probably the most directly and easily accessible forms of online help. (He also cites wizards in an interesting part of the essay I turn to later.) For many of their needs, however, users consult forms of help (HLP files, CHM files, and the like) that are the online equivalent of print books.

With these forms of help, users typically browse through an online table of contents and an online index, much as they would in a print manual. If a natural language interface is available, the user still has to formulate a query and then pick from a list of suggested help topics, not always pertinent ones. Help technologies may advance until access to desired information is nearly instant and automatic, but Johnson-Eilola's claim for invisibility is not borne out by the help systems in use today.

Another form of invisibility is a function of writing. Help procedures are written in a trim, streamlined style designed for easy comprehension by busy users. These procedures speak in a quiet, even-toned, authoritative corporate voice. They retreat from human consciousness, but leave users with intellectual amnesia, and invite users to assume a passive role in regard to the documentation and, by extension, the corporation that wrote and issued it. The essay ties this kind of writing and its consequences to Shannon and Weaver's

outdated transmission theory of communication:

Among other things, when both designers and users accept invisibility as a goal in these systems (when, for example, users recognize themselves as the unspoken "You" of the command "Press the enter key") we participate in what's popularly known as the Shannon and Weaver model of communication from the 1940s, also sometimes called the transmission or conduit model: Information passes down a channel from sender to receiver. The receiver's job is this: Present yourself as a target. (pp. 4-5)

It is not clear, however, that impersonal documentation has this effect on computer users or how salient this effect might be. As Johnson-Eilola himself acknowledges, people inevitably make meaning as they read, and their use of documentation is a "recursive, active, creative process." (p. 8) Indeed, users of documentation regularly form judgments (often harsh ones) about the documentation and the company that made the software, and they regularly depart from the guidance offered by the documentation.

It may well be that many technical writers, influenced by Shannon and Weaver, view communication as a mechanical transmission process, and certainly we would have these writers (and everyone else) gain more sophistication about communication and rhetoric. But how people respond to streamlined, impersonal documentation, how people read and think, does not depend on whether the writer accepts the Shannon and Weaver model—or even whether readers themselves do.

It is worth noting that when computer users turn to third-party books—as they continue to do—they often encounter authors who project lively personas and who are often more than willing to point out shortcomings in the software they are writing about. Many users, then, are in a position to notice this difference in how they are addressed. When impersonal documentation can be seen as a rhetorical choice, it is not invisible.

Johnson-Eilola's argument extends to software interfaces. Much as standard procedures subtly project corporate values, so do the standardized, highly functional interfaces of most software applications. Citing Dickie and Cynthia Selfe, Johnson-Eilola notes how "contemporary interface mappings rely heavily on Eurocentric, corporate ways of seeing and working." (p. 19). True as this is, practical alternatives are not easy to find (though one might imagine interface "skins" that accord with the values of certain cultures). Perhaps the best solution—and this is one of the rearticulations proposed in the essay—is education, raising the awareness of technical writers and everyone else in regard to the agendas and outlooks that lie behind all cultural artifacts.

The third form of invisibility stems from the narrow scope of online help, the insistence on teaching computer tasks ("training") while largely excluding domain information ("learning"). So, for example, online help explains how to create a hanging indent but does not offer domain knowledge such as explaining the rhetorical implications of hanging indents in page design. Narrowly focused documentation appeals to users because of its brevity and to software companies because it costs less to produce. But in an important respect it does not ultimately serve people well: It does not accord with the complex circumstances in which we all live, and it does not help computer users envision what is possible in their lives. As a remedy to this form of invisibility, the essay endorses enriching help with domain information and the production of both online tutorials and printed books geared for broad-based learning.

I believe, along with Johnson-Eilola, that online help should include enough conceptual information for users to understand the consequences of carrying out tasks. On the other hand, the issues of how much domain knowledge to provide and how to provide it are longstanding and difficult ones. It is not at all clear how much domain knowledge users want to view while trying to figure out basic computer tasks or how designers can integrate domain information with core documentation. Another problem is that in many instances no single body of domain information will serve the needs of diverse audiences. To return to Johnson-Eilola's example, while the rhetorical implications of hanging indents in page design should certainly be explained in online tutorials and third-party books, explanations of this kind may or may not work well as a part of online help.

A significant part of the discussion of domain information is a negative critique of wizards. Johnson-Eilola's stance is that wizards are most often used to artificially reduce complexity, to automate "things that probably aren't very amenable to automation." (p. 11) Two wizards in Microsoft Word—the resume wizard and the legal pleading wizard—are singled out for not providing sufficient domain information and, hence, for inviting users to create documents without really understanding the communication task at hand.

I find this position problematic on several grounds. To begin with, a great many software wizards automate basic computer tasks (e.g., configuring a hardware device) and are fully adequate for their purpose. Furthermore, both the MS Word resume and legal pleading wizard can be used advantageously simply to get a head start on typing and formatting. (The legal pleading wizard is especially convenient; it lets me import contact names and addresses from Outlook Express.)

Granting that a wizard may lull users into creating a document thoughtlessly, users themselves should, I think, accept significant responsibility for the resumes and

pleadings they create if they have no experience with such documents and do not seek guidance beyond what the wizard offers. Finally, I question whether we want (potentially) hundreds of millions of people to receive comprehensive instruction on the creation of resumes, legal pleadings, and other documents from Microsoft or any other single source.

The fourth kind of invisibility pertains to the design of software user interfaces. Designers necessarily make some features more prominent than others. But this is problematic in a culture conditioned to the idea that "the distance between desire and result should be near zero." (p. 15) Users gravitate to what's visible, and the relative invisibility of certain functions discourages the use of those functions. Button bars and toolboxes are cited as encouraging users to content themselves with the functions immediately in view.

The issues here parallel several that I've raised earlier. Perhaps Johnson-Eilola underestimates people's willingness to reflect, form goals, plan, and then to seek out both the computer functions and the documentation they need. And perhaps there is no ready way to change people who are truly lazy and thoughtless.

The End of Our Little Machines

Finally, I suggest that with the emergence of the Internet our little machines of online help are actually disappearing, being absorbed into something much larger and more complex. Help is becoming a portal, a quick and convenient source of core information but also a gateway to very extensive resources. Many of these resources reside on the software vendor's server, but others do not.

Increasingly, a user who is dissatisfied with the available help topics can access an extensive "knowledge base" of highly specialized information (e.g., known bugs and fixes). A library of tutorials, software patches, and other resources is often available. The Microsoft Office Template Gallery, for example, offers a surprisingly complete and specific set of sample resumes (e.g., "Demonstrating how your military experience translates into corporate skills") along with links to books on resumes and other resume-related resources. Johnson-Eilola calls for adding a social dimension to online help, and the help-as-portal paradigm includes directing users to bulletin boards and live chat sessions. This richness of options works against invisibility.

This new paradigm for user support does not address all of Johnson-Eilola's concerns, and it raises new ones. Indeed, one risk in the new paradigm is that users will be led from one resource to another by clusters of software vendors, media corporations, and other powerful interests working in close partnership. Users, then, may think they are being shown links to the resources that best meet their needs when profit is the main criterion for providing these links. We will continue to need the kind of alertness to broad societal issues exhibited in this essay.

Little Machines: Understanding Users Understanding Interfaces

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The space of a building is constructed to enclose something that must never appear within it.

Mark Wigley, The Architecture of Deconstruction

An ars oblivianis? Forget it!

Umberto Eco

User friendly. User testing. Power user. In recognizing ourselves as computer users, we are also positioned (at least partially) as the used, the variable piece of the machine that closes the circuit, like a key in the ignition of a car. We are happiest when our technologies work automatically, when the machine anticipates our every desire. The

machine is never completely absent from our attention, but it is becoming increasingly difficult—pointless, it seems—to think critically about the operation of the machine and our position within it. We don't think often about the ways in which technologies (and the larger, social technical system) construct positions that users assume, in effect, structuring users in specific ways. If the designers of programs have done their work well, users reason, then users shouldn't have to think.

Functional texts are defined by this politics of amnesia.

Not that amnesia's a bad thing. Amnesia has become an operational requirement for our era. For information so inundates the lives of most users that they would literally be frozen if they could not routinely put aside important pieces of information. The inability to sort out, filter, and coordinate information—that is, to decide quickly what to forget—is one clinical definition of schizophrenia. Here, though, I want to return to the space covered over by routine acts of amnesia, to ask how users are constructed by computer texts (interfaces, documentation) as well as posit some implications of those constructions. Finally, I'd like to ask what other approaches avoid forgetting as a primary operational tactic: how can we help them actively build memories and experiences.

It's hard to argue with something that's not there

We pay a lot of attention to flashy technologies—multimedia presentations, real-time videoconferencing and document markup, vast hypermedic webs of global information—but our cleverest machines are invisible, used without thought, adapted and made part of our lives.



Figure 1: Balloon Help in Aldus Freehand

As Donna Haraway (1985) analyzes the situation, at their epitome, machines become intangible—"made of sunshine; they are all light and clean because they are nothing but signals . . . ether, quintessence" (p. 70). So while new technologies retain the capability to surprise us, eventually, successful technologies become commonplace, made invisible by their very successes.



Figure 2: Tooltip Help ("Style") in Microsoft Office Application

Print documentation seems doomed from its very outset—when a user focuses on a computer screen, any reference to a separate piece of media represents a failure of some sort: the computer wasn't transparent enough. There's truth to the saying, "If all else fails, read the manual." The printed document is a last resort.

Online documentation overcomes some of this issue by putting the manual within the technology. This act paradoxically makes manuals easier to access and more forgettable once we do use them. The limited successes of online documentation rely at least partially on the way that they call little attention to themselves. Where reading functional instructions in print requires retrieving books from shelves, locating and consulting information before returning to the "real" workspace, the interface, online documents at least collapse the media so that the help and the work are both within the interface.

Accepting Invisibility Restricts the Possibilities of Communication

Good online help, as it's typically defined, calls no attention to itself, asks the user to do very little. Although there are obvious reasons for this situation, we should not overlook some of the other implications. Among other things, when both designers and users accept invisibility as a goal in these systems (when, for example, users recognize themselves as the unspoken "You" of the command "Press the enter key") we participate in what's popularly known as the Shannon and Weaver model of communication from the 1940s, also sometimes called the transmission or conduit model: Information passes down a channel from sender to receiver. The receiver's job is this: *Present yourself as a target*.



Figure 3: Shannon and Weaver Type Communication Model

Shannon and Weaver's model purports to offer a neutral, objective way of talking about communication. But as the figure suggests, the model relies on a particular worldview, a scientific and mechanical version of communication and meaning. Not surprisingly, many people (in almost every field) have developed much more complex, socially situated models of the communication process that take into account the reader's role in the construction of meaning, the contingency of meaning, the context in which communication takes place, politics, and other factors. Shannon and Weaver in fact later complicated their own model by introducing channels for feedback; more recent approaches have in turn provided more dynamic interaction loops—but the overall approach is still remarkably the same.

Why, then, are users still able to position themselves so easily in this simplistic model when they use online documentation? Why do designers of both interfaces and online help so insistently support this model? Simply because it works. Although Einsteinian physics replaced Newton's laws, people still apply Newtonian physics in their everyday experiences in the world and they get along just fine, thank you. So what if the old model is slightly off? It works well enough for most purposes. The key phrase is "works well enough": by defining the success of the project in terms such as speed and accuracy, such texts map out other concerns, from broader conceptual knowledge to the politics of technology.



Figure 4: Circa 1987 HyperCard Help Stack

So whereas early forms of online help attempted to naturalize themselves by appearing as books on screen, complete with spiral binders, index tabs, and a three-D look, designers and users have quickly discovered that what hypertext offers was not a way to improve on an old, slow-moving technology, but a way to create a new machine, one users occupy in order to navigate information space. (It's so fast it doesn't move.) Users are told by this machine that the Shannon and Weaver model works after all, once they have attained a level of technology powerful enough to support the (mainly one-way) process of communication. In print, the medium was the message, but that was always the problem with print—it got in the way. Online, we can make the medium disappear and leave the pure message (or so the argument goes).

The emphasis here on transparency in technical communication is not a surprising or even recent development. Technical communication has long been framed by its practitioners as an activity and discipline in which the medium should (ideally) be transparent: Robert Connors' (1982) history of technical communication identifies the splitting off of technical communication from English departments as due in part to the heightened sense of a need for efficiency in functional and technical prose (p. 332). And David Dobrin (1983), while maintaining a critical stance on both the fluidity and power of definitions, notes that "technical writing's greatest success comes when it is swallowed easily and digested quickly" (p. 247).

Issue 1: Do as I say, not as I do.

Easy to use computer systems present designers and users with a paradox: Users don't want to struggle to master arcane command names and codes. At the same time, most communicators know that communication is a complex, recursive set of processes involving writers, readers, and their contexts. So we insist that the Shannon and Weaver model is somewhat outdated, but we reaffirm it constantly. It works, because we accept a narrow vision of how to measure the success of these online texts. This should be our first clue: We, as a field, tend to understand the use of documentation as a recursive, active, creative process: users don't simply *receive* information; they skim it, paraphrase it, connect it up to their previous experiences, experiment with it, remake it. But we also encourage our users to think of documentation, online or print, as approaching invisibility. So even as our field increases the complexity of communication as a practice, the vision we construct for our audiences contradicts that complexity, makes our work and us invisible.

Issue 2: Real learning disappears in the collapse of time.

Computer documentation performs both training and teaching functions. That is, to some extent users will always refer to documentation as a system that assists them in simply operating a technology as if it were a hand tool. To make a simple, straightforward analogy, when someone picks up a hammer, they don't expect to need to know the finer details of cabinetry if all they need to do is drive a nail.

But is this always true? Shouldn't using a hammer, in a well-designed system, help users eventually learn more complex carpentry skills? In order for a user to learn those advanced skills, they need to apprentice themselves to another, more experienced carpenter or avail themselves of more complex educational situations—workshops, trade schools, etc. The majority of users never move from training to learning.

To bring the analogy back around, most documentation supports training, but not learning. In the case of the hammer, there were significant technical issues that prevent the hammer from supporting learning (obvious issues like the fact that there's no Help button on a hammer, not flexible display, etc.). Computers, though, can clearly support the transition from training to learning. Indeed, many of us have worked on tutorial and self-paced learning systems that teach broad skills in communication, management, design, and more.

These popular exceptions aside, thought, documentation of mass market systems steadfastly refuses to move from training to learning.

A second difficulty with functional documentation-and interface design as a whole-is the tendency to collapse critical distance in the pursuit of increased efficiency. Documentation, however, is frequently valued precisely because it can seem to act instantaneously. Learning, however, requires more time than training.



Figure 5: Rough History of Help Systems

Roughly speaking, we can track an evolutionary movement in documentation away from three characteristics (social, oral, and physical) and toward three opposing poles (individual, literate, invisible).

Wizards, near the bottom of the chart, constitute an interesting potential countercategory: potentially more complex responses to help queries. Wizards might be used to help users learn rather than simply locate information as quickly as possible. However, as I'll discuss below, wizards are most often used to artificially reduce the complexity of a user's, of automating things that probably aren't very amenable to automation.

We can see the ways in which assistance moves from outside of the machine toward the inside, and from outside specific applications and into them. Help is now presented to users as a part of the workspace itself. Not only has online help conquered the tedium of walking to a bookshelf and manually finding pages, but now context-sensitive forms of help and iconic cues about possible actions act to remove even the act of navigation from using online help-it's just there when you need it. This is hard to argue with: If I had a choice between a two-word, on-screen prompt about the function of a tool and the alternate task of finding a print manual, locating the relevant information through the use of a table of contents or index, and then navigating to the information (and

reading it), I'd probably try the five-word description (and I'm more willing to waste time than the average user).

Perhaps more alarming, though, are the cases where the machine does attempt to function in contexts where simple adjustments and binary choices will not do. Styleanalysis programs are one example. Newer forms of help attempt to automate teaching and learning to the point that the activity disappears. In Microsoft's interestingly named "wizards," for example, users construct documents based on a series of basic questions and standard templates. Word ships with standard wizards for memos, press releases, resumes, agendas, and even one for a legal pleading letter.

The resume wizard, for example, walks users through the layout of standard resumes, letting them select among numerous resume classes (am I "professional" or "contemporary" or "elegant"?) and stock and optional categories, as well as custom section headings.





Figure 6: Sample Screens from Microsoft Word Resume Wizard

There are certainly benefits to this arrangement, but I'm concerned about the fact that wizards don't attempt to offer much in the way of advice about why one would choose some headings over others, for example. And the only response I can articulate toward the resume wizard is that, like style-analysis programs, it may provide the context for a useful discussions about why computer programs fail at some tasks. However, most users will not be prompted to engage in those discussions (those who teach computer documentation or writing might help students engage in this discussion, but the majority of Microsoft Word users are not in classes; many of those who are in more academic settings may be in areas that hold simplistic models of writing).

Another Wizard in Word walks users through formatting a Legal Pleading document (but does not discuss what it is or how to write it). I'm all for people learning the types of knowledge that are too frequently held only by the elite, but I don't see where this Wizard helps the type of learning that actually lets a person write an effective legal pleading. It seems more than a little legally dangerous to begin writing these things without background knowledge and, furthermore, no attempt by the system to help the user gain that background knowledge. (In the overactive theater screen in my mind, I see a cartoon version of Joe Pesci playing the lead role in Microsoft's deceased social agent in the legal drama/comedy, *My Cousin Bob*.) The same holds true for the other wizards.

Issue 3: At the speed of light, time ceases to be an issue.

A somewhat more complex problem appears as the result of the computer's emphasis on increased speed and the collapse of critical distance, something urban planner and social theorist Paul Virilio described as a reaching an "absolute speed" in which everything that's important is immediately accessible. In such systems, Virilio argues, we seem to pilot a sort of "static audiovisual vehicle" that gives us "the condition of possibility of a sudden mobilization of the illusion of the world, of an entire world, that is telepresent at every moment." This is the paradox of speed, where objects moving at the speed of light no longer experience time.

In one sense, computer users do navigate from place to place, moving from the desktop, from folder to folder, across disks, into word-processing, graphics, video, and audio programs, and even out to the network, where they traverse the World Wide Web and enter into other user's computers. But "navigation" puts perhaps the wrong spin on what I see happening here: users are not going anywhere. Rather, the world is brought to them. As Virilio ironically puts it,

[W]ith the revolution of instantaneous transmissions, we are witnessing the beginnings of a type of general arrival in which everything arrives so quickly that departure becomes unnecessary.

This situation leads to a couple of potentially troubling (but probably familiar) problems, such as the impulse for computer programs to move menu items (which are accessible but relatively invisible) into the interface itself in the form of toolboxes (as with Aldus PageMaker, Figure 1 above) and button bars (as with Microsoft Word, Figure 2 above). Symptomatically, these movements foster the idea that everything important is visible, that the distance between desire and result should be near zero, that the World Wide Web really extends inclusively over the entire world. Certainly these are only tendencies, and ones that are commonly reversed by other factors, but there appears to be a clear shift toward what we might call interface inclusiveness.

Rearticulation: Socialize online help.

Documentation used to be non-existent: users were enculturated into a community of users by experts. Unfortunately, as many of us have found, dealing with the experts has not always been easy: they're frequently possessive, speak discourses other than our own, and not interested in the same things we are. In addition, there's not frequently enough experts to go around. Historically, documentation (like all print) rehearsed the movement from human master/apprentice relations to private consultation with a text. Rather than asking someone to teach you how to do something, you use a text.

Still, using documentation is still typically the last resort--users are more likely to ask each other for help rather than consult a text (online or print). I have a hard time recalling an instance in which any of my students consulted a printed document unless I forced them to. Ironically, or perhaps tellingly, these same students are either professional writing students or computer science students, many of whom will be employed writing such documentation. The difficulty of most online help is that it explicitly isolates users from each other. I'm not calling for a return to the traditional master/apprentice model, because its structure skews power away from learners and toward masters. But a collaborative model of online help might allow users to work with each other, contributing advice or asking questions based on their own varying levels and areas of expertise. The strength of the little machines model makes this idea seem a little odd—who, after all, would want to spend their time answering questions about software, design, complex troubleshooting configuration, or writing processes?

But if we look at the willingness with which people do engage in such discussions in existing online forums—WebBoards, instant messaging channels, USENET lists, MOO/MUD spaces, chat rooms, Listserv's—we can begin to see the possibility of poking holes in the barriers that construct online help as an isolated, individual space.

Rearticulation: Get users to understand interfaces as interested maps

Cartographer Denis Wood argued that the power of a map was its "ability to do work." Maps are not simply neutral, passive representations—they are active, they channel, structure, and document actions within the world. A map of the world documents the results of civil wars and diplomatic agreements about boundaries; it also structures activities in the world, directing participants to go to one location but not another, to enforce one set of laws in one region and a different set in another. So on one hand, yes, maps are only representations of the real world (I cannot write the name "Johndanland" in place of "Canada" and thereby own Canada), but to the degree that they are sanctioned and believed by communities, they structure how participants in those communities act (by participating within the legal system of property ownership in the state of New York—including property taxes—my wife and I can have our name written on a specific, five-acre parcel of land located in the township of Hopkinton. The necessary connections between the social and the physical networks involved in these mappings give maps more power than we typically allow them. (But anyone who has initiated a title search as part of a property purchase understands the importance of such maps, both graphical and textual.)

Pieces of computer documentation work like maps; they "operate effectively... [T]hey don't fail. On the contrary they succeed, they achieve effects, they get things done." At the same time, both maps and documentation "make present—they represent—the accumulated thought and labor of the past... [M]aps facilitate the reproduction of the culture that brings them into being." Working from, among other things, Wood's theories about the politics of cartography, Cindy and Dickie Selfe have argued that contemporary interface mappings rely heavily on Eurocentric, corporate ways of seeing and working. Folders, clocks, limited alphabets, hierarchical filing systems all work to validate one particular worldview. By conceiving of interfaces as (inter)texts, Selfe and Selfe say, we might begin helping ourselves and users recognize the interested and political nature of interfaces, and also begin working to construct other representations.

Similarly, we might begin questioning the assumptions that allow online texts to operate mechanically: What exactly is being automated? What decisions are made, and who/what is making them? If this task wasn't automated, what would I have to know to make the choices myself? What other texts and people might this text be connected to? There are other possible articulations of "machine":

A book itself is a little machine; what is the relation (also measurable) of this literary machine to a war machine, love machine, revolutionary machine, etc.—an *abstract machine* that sweeps them along? We have been criticized for overquoting literary authors. But when one writes, the only question is which other machine the literary machine can be plugged into, must be plugged into in order to work.... Literature is an assemblage.

Rearticulation: Combine functional instruction with conceptual instruction.

As I alluded earlier, one way in which documentation short-circuits questions and critical reflection is the strict division typically maintained between "tool" instruction and "conceptual" instruction: Online documentation normally offers instructions for tools (how to indent a paragraph, how to change a font from one family to another), but ignores conceptual instruction. A potential reason for this ignorance is the fact that such pedagogical discussions would have to admit that writing was not easy, a position that flies in the face of the image being portrayed. Early online documentation stressed brevity—not merely in sentence structure but in the sheer amount of material provided—because of diskspace restrictions. But given the demands of contemporary versions of Microsoft Office, it's hard to believe disk space is still an issue.

In many of our own classes, we take up this discussion in the form of broad learning discussion of layout, the processes of writing, etc. And it could be argued that the machine will never be able to replace a human teacher. But documentation in general is founded on the idea that one cannot always have a teacher physically present. We write textbooks, design handouts, pair students up with one another for peer critiques. Conceptually sound texts on issues like Website design increasingly cover issues of process, audience, etc. (see, for example, Rosenfeld and Morville's *Information Architecture* or Johnson-Eilola, Designing Effective). We should recognize that even when computer-supported advice is not without its own problems (style-analysis programs, for example), we should also work to help reconstruct these supports because they will be there whether we like it or not.

Rearticulation: We might also begin thinking about the crucial difference between "automation" and "selective focus"

Automation makes user intervention difficult or impossible. Industrial anthropologist Larry Hirshhorn, for example, recounts the experiences of a group of machinists who taught themselves how to program an automated lathe and, as a result, began improving the parts made by the machines (rather than, as the machinists had previously done, merely load material into the machine and remove parts after they were made). Management, however, viewed the workers as operating in areas outside of their qualifications, and inserted a mechanism on the machine to prevent the machinists from reprogramming it.

Similar structures are often present in documentation, typically because of the argument that conceptual information or elaborations are "extraneous." The resume wizard I showed earlier, for example, offers a minimal number of choices to users but in no way encourages them to expand on those choices, or rework them in new ways. The wizard does offer limited advice on when to use chronological rather than skills based organizations, but it does not offer any discussion beyond that. But why limit it to five words? Why not connect those fragmented, telegraphic bits of information to extended information? Why not, in fact, connect the five-word descriptions to full-blown lessons on page design or writing processes, or whatever? Because the priorities of online helpcompact efficiently functioning-prevent such important things as offering the user any choice that cannot be addressed without thought. Online help addressing complicated design issues such as the appropriate use of hanging indents, kerning, leading, etc. must necessarily (according to the efficiency model) only offer functional instructions. The technology disguises itself as a neutral tool rather than an incomplete environment, at never suggesting that the user might want to think about the operation or learn background theories. The implication behind online help in most computer programs is that the user already knows the theory behind the work, and that the computer is only a neutral tool (often complicated but, ideally, obvious). In this situation, the "problem" of writing or other complex activities are "solved" not by dealing the complexity of that situation, but denying that it exists.

But as technical communicators, if we consider our work to be helping users improve the quality of their own lives and cultures, we have to do more than cover over or deny the fact that life is complicated. Instead, we must help users understand communication, production, thinking, and living as an often messy, complicated, openended activity, one that often requires attention to not merely the simplest functional activities but also the larger frameworks and contexts of that work.

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